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SECONDARY EDUCATION IN VICTORIA

THE question of defining the limits of elementary and secondary education is always one of extreme difficulty. In Victoria, owing to the absence of any systematic control of schools, other than state schools, which are all primary, this difficulty amounts almost to an impossibility. Most of the primary instruction is carried on by the state. The statesmen of the early days of Victoria were men of large and liberal views. They had a firm and clear grasp of the question of education. They knew that universal education was a necessary complement to universal suffrage, and that an uneducated democracy could not possibly exist. Hence, after long and careful deliberation, an act was passed in 1872 which provided for free, secular, and compulsory education. In carrying out the provisions of this act, schools which are known as state schools have been established in every town and village, and at the close of the year 1899 there were 1889 state schools in operation. Attendance at a state school is not compulsory, but parents must give evidence that their children between the ages of six and thirteen years are being satisfactorily educated somewhere. The state school instruction is wholly free, all the expense being borne by the state. As many parents prefer to have their children educated according to their own views and in schools where they think more individual attention is given

to the pupils than can possibly be given to them in a state school, there exist side by side with the state schools a large number of private schools. In the year 1899, the latest year for which statistics are obtainable, there were 901 such private schools in operation. These statistics are obtained from returns furnished by the principals of private schools in accordance with the provisions of the Education Act of 1872. At these schools there were altogether 52,318 pupils in attendance. This number is about one fifth of the whole number of children under instruction in Victoria—the total number being 255,582. In our state schools there is a definite program of instruction. The teachers' salaries are partly dependent on the results obtained by their pupils at the annual inspectorial examinations held on the work prescribed by the program. Throughout the 901 private schools, however, there is no standard of work prescribed. The public has no means of judging of their relative merit or lack of merit. No form of inspection exists, nor is any qualification required of any teacher engaged therein. Though the private schools are thus exempt from the evil effects of having their methods of instruction forced into one uniform mold, nevertheless they suffer from the pernicious results that spring from an utter absence of control and organization. The consequence is that most of these private schools find it necessary to their existence to claim, whether rightly or not, that they do a class of work superior to that done in the state schools. They must either do this or be content to be ranked as infant schools. A great proportion, therefore, of these 901 private schools claim the title of secondary schools.

The amount of money expended in the year 1899 by the state on education was, neglecting the shillings and pence, £713,777. Of this amount primary education absorbed £674,787. The subsidy to the Melbourne University was £13,250 whilst the schools of mines and other technical schools received grants amounting to £24,740. It may thus be seen that our government expends annually on primary and tertiary education—if I may be allowed the use of the term—the sum of £727,027, whilst of late years it has provided no connecting link

whatever between these stages. Prior to 1893 an attempt was made to bridge this gap by a system of scholarships, which enabled a few of the cleverer boys and girls to spend two or three years at one of the leading secondary schools, and so qualify for admission to the university. But since the year 1893 owing to the necessity for national retrenchment, even this slight attempt to connect the primary state instruction with a university education has been neglected. The abolition of this system of scholarships was a retrograde step in our educational world, but it was only one of the many severe blows received during our years of depression by the education department. It is gratifying to know that the need for retrenchment has passed, and that not only has there been a rapid restoration of all previous educational advantages enjoyed by the community but there are also many signs of real progress in the field of technical and manual instruction.

Amongst the 901 private schools referred to above, there are many that do very superior work, and it is amongst them that our genuine secondary schools are to be found. The standard generally aimed at is that prescribed by the Melbourne University for the matriculation or entrance examination. This examination is of a twofold nature. There is what is known as a pass and honours standard in most of the subjects prescribed for the examination. It thus provides practically a senior and a junior standard. The pass examination serves, too, a double purpose. It is regarded as a school's exit examination as well as a university entrance examination. The honours examination is attended by comparatively few candidates. But members of the professorial board of the university are now lending great assistance to the superior class of schools by continually insisting in their various reports that students who intend taking up a university course should remain at secondary schools till they attain the honours standard prescribed for the matriculation examination. The few schools which maintain a staff capable of teaching up to the honours standard are of late years beginning to find that the number of students of this class is rapidly increasing. The bulk, however, of the candidates for the matriculation examination

rest satisfied with the pass standard, as in addition to its being the minimum entrance examination to the university it is also accepted as a fairly good certificate for junior clerks by various corporate institutions. For the examination there are about 1600 candidates annually and of these about 42 per cent. pass. The examination is wide in range. Till recently so much latitude was allowed to candidates in the choice of subjects that it has been found necessary to impose some restrictions in this respect. The following is a brief statement of the subjects for examination :

Latin.— Translation into English of easy passages from books not prescribed. Translation into Latin prose of easy passages of English. Accidence and syntax. One book of Virgil's *Æneid* and one book of Caesar, or their equivalent. For the *honours* examination, in addition to the *pass* work one book of Livy and one book of Horace's *Odes*, or their equivalent.

2. *Greek*.— A similar standard to that prescribed for Latin.

3. *Algebra*.— Pass : Up to and including quadratic equations. Honours : Up to and including the binomial theorem.

4. *Geometry*.— Pass : Euclid, Books I–III, with easy deductions. Honours : Euclid, Books I–VI, with deductions. The elementary properties of the parabola and ellipse. Trigonometry.

5. *English*.— Composition, grammar, literature.

6. *History*.— England, Rome, Greece.

7. *French*.— Pass : Translation into English of easy passages of French. Translation into French prose of easy passages of English. Accidence and leading rules of syntax. Honours : A more advanced examination. The history of the derivation of the language from Latin.

8. *German*.— A similar standard to that prescribed for French.

9. *Arithmetic*.— General (no honours paper in this subject).

10. *Geography*.— Physical and general (no honours paper in this subject).

11. *Chemistry*.

12. *Physics*.— Pass : Dynamics and heat. Honours : Dynamics, heat, magnetism and electricity.

13. *Elementary Anatomy and Physiology*.

14. *Botany*.

15. *Music*.

16. *Drawing*.

To obtain a pass a candidate must now pass in two languages, one mathematical subject, and must, at the same time, pass in at least six subjects. No candidate is, however, allowed to include more than two science subjects in the six necessary for a pass.

Now this matriculation examination is decried by many as the bane of our secondary schools. They assert that it is made the be-all and end-all of secondary-school work. But this is rather a narrow judgment. Certainly the puffing advertisements that appear at the beginning of each school year in the metropolitan newspapers do lend some weight to such a statement. Most of these advertisements recount the number of passes gained at the matriculation examination by the pupils during the preceding year. But if the number of passes obtained by a school is at all large and fairly regular in successive years, it proves that good work is being done in that school. For the examination is the only one conducted by an outside independent examining board, and it is of so wide a scope and of so liberal a nature that it exercises no cramping influence on a teacher's work. It provides for classical, mathematical, scientific, and artistic subjects. Little more save a purely commercial set of subjects could be included. But the evil that does exist in connection with the examination is that almost every one of the 901 private schools attempts to obtain at least one pass at matriculation during some period of its history. Sometimes it is a member of the school staff that succeeds in passing; and the school is duly advertised as one that prepares pupils successfully for the matriculation examination, and claims to rank as a secondary school. But this pernicious practice is bound to continue so long as there is no inspection of schools and no qualification demanded from those who engage in teaching outside the state schools. It is the only means of living left to the inefficient, and the public are temporarily duped as regards the quality of instruction imparted in a school. In spite, however, of what I have written about the evils that exist amongst these private schools, it must be conceded that there are some brilliant exceptions.

Five of the schools included in the 901 private schools in the government report are generally allowed the title of the "Great Public Schools of Victoria." These at the date of their establishment received sums of money amounting to £40,000 in all, and grants of land from the government for the erection of

school buildings. But they have received no state assistance since their foundation. These schools are the Scotch College, Wesley College, Church of England grammar schools (2), St. Patrick's College. They receive male pupils only and each is attached to a religious denomination. In connection with some of them there are exhibitions chiefly with the view of assisting the ablest scholars to complete their education at the university. It is in these schools that most of the boys who receive a higher education are taught. Of more recent date was the foundation of colleges for the education of girls. The two leading girls' secondary schools are the Presbyterian Ladies' College and the Methodist Ladies' College. Although these colleges are attached to religious denominations, no religious test prevails as regards the admission of pupils. They all receive pupils of any denomination. There are many other schools of a preparatory nature in which excellent work is being done, and scattered throughout Victoria in every important town there is to be found a convent school in which the higher branches of education are successfully carried on.

But in four fifths of these 901 private schools even the elementary instruction that is offered is wretchedly poor. And obstinate questionings have forced themselves on the minds of educationists as to whether provision should not be made for the proper training and the registration of teachers for secondary schools. It is hoped that thereby the instruction given as well as the status of the teachers employed will be improved. A movement has been carried on spasmodically for the past ten or twelve years to secure the registration of teachers engaged in secondary schools. But it is only during the past year that any hopeful signs of its being carried into effect have become apparent. The public had to be educated. More attention is being given to educational problems. The press has taken up the subject and now advocates the registration of teachers employed in schools outside the state schools. A select committee of the university senate has drafted proposals to secure this object. The senate has adopted these proposals, and they have also been approved at a meeting of teachers called for the purpose

of considering them. The university senate has further passed a resolution affirming the desirability of incorporating in the course for the B.A. degree the theory of teaching as a subject. It is with pleasure, too, that one notes that the executive body of the university—the university council—in its list of requirements recently presented to the state treasurer has asked for a sufficient increase in the government subsidy to allow of the establishment of a chair of pedagogy. The select committee of the senate appointed to consider the proposal to register secondary-school teachers was appointed on my motion, and I had the honour of being a member of it. Our greatest difficulty was the definition of a secondary school. Finding it impossible to distinguish satisfactorily between primary and secondary schools, we made our resolutions applicable to all schools other than state schools. The resolutions provide for the establishment of an educational council to carry out the provisions of the legislation which we hope to secure during the next session of our state parliament. The principal or proprietor of each school shall decide as to whether he shall conduct a primary or a secondary school. The minimum qualifications for teachers in each class of school are set forth, and in accordance with the proposed act the educational council shall publish a register of duly qualified teachers. All vested rights are to be conserved. Legislation on these lines may be regarded as a small concession to secondary-school teachers. But it is the first forward step that has been attempted, and there can be no doubt that once it has been taken, progress will become rapid. I do not think that the public will rest satisfied until there is also some form of inspection of secondary schools carried out by an independent body. In a small community the difficulty would be to find a capable body of inspectors—men of wide erudition and of practical knowledge of the limitations and possibilities of teaching.

The technical schools and the schools of mines and of agriculture are almost wholly under the state control. The fees charged to the students are small, the schools relying on government subsidies to make up any deficiencies. For the past eighteen months a royal commission on technical education has

been sitting. Four progress reports have been issued by this commission. In the last progress report issued a recommendation was made for the establishment of a general educational council. This recommendation appears to be a wise one, and is of vital importance to secondary education. The duties of such a council are very clearly set forth in the words of the report, which I cannot do better than quote.

What is wanted is a body that will watch over the work of every branch of the educational system and see that the work of the respective parts is properly apportioned and duly carried out, that efficient means are afforded for the acquisition of the knowledge requisite in every walk of life, that the agencies for the supply of teachers, duly qualified, are in good working order, and that the whole is permanently alive to all legitimate movements of reform. . . . It is essential that the various schools should be encouraged to preserve variety, spontaneity, and originality of method, which are essentials in education. Can the government departments of education and agriculture do this? In our judgment they are powerless to do so.

The constitution of a general council of education should not be difficult to determine; and it should include representatives of the university, educationists, and men who combine intelligence, culture, and a zeal for the diffusion of education, and representatives specially qualified to deal with the various departments of education relating to primary and technical education. It should include women as well as men. Secondary education should be represented. It cannot be said that the relation of secondary education to technical education has ever been discussed in Victoria. . . . Its functions should be to inquire into the working of the education department, and all the educational work of the colony, and to report to parliament annually upon all matters connected with education. . . . It would furnish parliament and the public with the means of judgment. It would, without a doubt, be welcomed by all the teachers interested in the perfection of educational methods, and would keep the community aroused to the recognition of the essential importance of national training.

The work done by this royal commission has so far been excellent, but whether it will bear any practical fruit in the immediate future is doubtful. If the wise recommendations made by it be adopted, education in all its branches will be greatly improved. And I am pleased to note that the proposal made by the university senate for the establishment of an educational council, to effect the registration of teachers in secondary schools, will harmonize with the recommendation of the royal

commission for the establishment of a general council of education. Systematic direction and organization of secondary schools is the great desideratum, and if this were attained I think that secondary education in our state would be placed on a sound basis.

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PRESENT TENDENCIES IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

(Concluded from p. 458)

III. Some comparison of the tendencies of public and private education should be made; or, taking the two more characteristic forms, let us consider the public high school—a day school—on the one hand, and the private boarding school on the other.

Students in the high school are in daily touch with the home life and the general life of the community. In the boarding school, the school life is for the time being the whole of life for the students. The disposition to regard school life as real life may be expected, then, to affect in different ways these two types of institution.

The high school is in some respects more in danger of isolation—of separation from the real life of its students—than schools of the other sort. It is possible for students to have a whole range of interests belonging to the hours not spent in school, and even to think of school interests as relatively unimportant. What more frequently happens is that the outside interests mix in a great variety of ways with those of the school, with a result that is confusing in the extreme.

There is a strongly marked tendency in American communities to permit young people, while yet in the high school, to forestall the social pleasures which a more wholesome taste would reserve for later enjoyment. The aping of college society on the part of high-school students adds to this evil. I need not enlarge upon this topic, for teachers will recall from their experience many things to fill out the picture that I have suggested. The distractions referred to are for the most part innocent enough in themselves. But they detract from the seriousness of our secondary education, and tend to a certain pettiness of scholastic attainment.

The students in German day schools are almost as completely removed from the outer world in their hours out of

school as if they lived within school walls; for the school authorities can do much toward regulating the home life in the interest of studies. Our American disposition is against that sort of regulation; and we must seek an American solution of the difficulty.

We have wished to see more of real life in the school; and here we find real life jostling the school in a way that is very embarrassing. The trouble is, however, that the school may be jostled by life without being in touch with life. The first thing, apparently, to be done by way of counteracting this tendency to distraction is to make the instruction in the school more vital—to bring it, in other words, into closer touch with the rest of life. The remark is very general; but this is not the place to enter into detail. And there are teachers who are translating the general principle into daily actuality, and making the things of the school more alive for their students than those interests that would attract them abroad. First, then, the instruction in the schools must have more of that living touch with reality. Then, the public must be led to a better understanding of the place and need of the school. For this difficulty cannot be fully dealt with by dealing with individuals: it is a public matter and calls for a change of public sentiment. If the people are persuaded that the school is doing work of superior excellence and of immediate significance for real life, it will be able to make its way and accomplish its purpose even in one of our comfortable and happy communities where parents obey their children faithfully.

One thing should be added here: We are coming to understand that the various school societies, literary, musical, athletic, and the like, represent something that belongs to education, because it belongs to the real life of the pupil in the school. We cannot longer treat these things as mere incidents or accidents. The emphasis may be misplaced in many ways in dealing with them; but their integral relation to the other employments of the school must now be recognized.

Referring to the other type of school, we observe that private boarding schools seem divided between two ideals—that of

the home and that of the college. All such schools must unavoidably be influenced by both of these ideals, though in varying degrees. In general they seem to be tending toward the increase of student responsibility for student conduct. Here, too, many things which were once regarded as side occupations—mere time-filling and play—are now seen to be vital to the educational function of the school. As regards athletics, we seem to have taken lessons from the English who have long recognized the rightful interest of the school in the various schoolboy sports. It is significant that continental educators are looking to England in this matter. It may be that football will supplant studies in English as the center of the school curriculum, as English has already supplanted Latin. I hardly think so; but the teacher who is hunting for the real boy to teach makes no mistake in the conclusion that a large part of him is on the field engaged in some vigorous game.

Many are looking with favor on private secondary schools because they are believed to be more free than public schools to make useful experiments; because they can devote more attention to the individual peculiarities of their students; and especially because they may be expected to give definite religious instruction. As regards experimentation, it may be said that private schools are sometimes organized for the avowed purpose of making experiment, and that usually along the line of some specific educational reform. Much good service has been done by the pioneer work of such schools. But by far the greater number of private schools seem to be notably conservative, preferring to follow good precedent and good leadership. It is to be hoped that with the gradual relaxation of close prescription in college-entrance requirements, academies, and other privately managed institutions will undertake a wider range of judicious experimentation, and so lead the way to improvements in education in which the high schools may be able to follow them.

The possibility of giving special attention to individual needs is one of the chief advantages enjoyed in private institutions; and there is, perhaps, no particular in which they can do the whole world of education a greater service than in making out

the most effective methods of individual treatment. Many forms of individual need depend on physical and mental conditions which may be described as pathological. It is in such cases especially that education should add to its tact, science. By extending the application of scientific knowledge to such cases, private schools may point the way which public schools will eventually follow.

There are many signs of growing interest in religious education. The Roman Catholic Church, after many years of effort in the building up of primary schools on the one hand and colleges and universities on the other, is now turning its attention to the establishment of high schools. It is not at all unlikely that a marked increase in such schools may be seen in the near future. Of course, the religious motive is dominant in this movement.

But the studies of the past decade in the psychology of adolescence have emphasized the significance of religious forces in the stage of development with which all secondary education has to do. It is to be expected that many high-school students will pass through times of great religious unrest, which will have an important bearing upon their whole intellectual and moral development. The attitude of secondary-school teachers toward such facts will undoubtedly command a large amount of attention in the years that are just before us.

As the nature of the storm and stress period of youth comes to be better understood, the extreme delicacy of the problem of religious instruction in this period becomes more evident. Teachers in strictly denominational schools discover that their task is not so simple as the mere setting-forth of the doctrines they desire to inculcate. The formal acceptance of doctrines is found to count for little in real life, and particularly at this stage of life, while personal convictions are all-powerful. The teacher, accordingly, in a religious academy learns to be patient with callow skepticism and to let it run its course. He learns to let the young skeptic take devious paths of speculation, that he may approach the faith in his own way and arrive at settled confidence in his own time. Such a teacher is not inactive, to be sure, but puts in a timely word of caution, information, and

sympathetic guidance; persuading the learner, when the occasion is opportune, that his new-recruited wisdom will become more wise when it falls into line with the best wisdom of his fellowmen, and steps out to music that has sounded the march of centuries.

The conscientious and scientific-minded teacher in the public high school cannot be unmindful of the fact that those under his instruction have the same sort of development to go through as those in private and church schools, and that at times the real life they are living from day to day is centered as much in their rising religious and philosophic doubt and aspiration as in their athletic or social interests. And he is at liberty to help them as the teacher in the private school helps his students, except in the one point of the doctrinal content of the religious consciousness. To some, this exception seems to cover everything of capital importance. To others, it seems an altogether subordinate matter, or a matter that may better be treated apart from the ordinary school instruction, in a separate institution. It is well that free play is allowed under our system for the satisfaction of a wide range of tastes and convictions in this matter. A state monopoly is not desirable in any stage of our educational system; perhaps least of all at the secondary stage. The public schools must be undenominational for generations to come—probably as long as there are religious denominations. But private and denominational schools should be welcomed and recognized as having their own work to do.

We may hope, too, that fraternal relations between teachers of public and private schools will be more generally cultivated in the future than they have been in the past. Let me urge this upon you, brethren, as a sacred and patriotic duty. There are tendencies here which may work good or evil to the commonwealth. By wisdom and good will, we may be able to forestall the evil and secure the good.

Each of these great bodies of teachers needs the help of the other to stir it up to make its instruction more thoroughly educational, which means more true to life. In the religious aspect of secondary instruction the teachers in the two types of

school are both working under limitation, but under different kinds of limitation. Subject always to such limitation, faithfully observed, all are responsible for helping their students past the danger of permanent skepticism, of mere absence of confidence and conviction; and toward such faith as shall give to each his best hold on hope and love and righteousness. If the best that can be done in that direction is a tone of voice that gives courage, or a look that is all truthfulness, let the word and look be given. The opportunity has not been wholly lost.

So we may say in general: The demand that is growing into some sort of dominance in the concerns of private schools and public schools alike, is the demand that instruction shall strike the note of reality; that it shall find the real pupil and give him instruction that he can lay hold of without pretense and without precocity. Red blood is going to school; and the school is interested in things that send red blood bounding to young muscles and young brains.

And what will be the result to American scholarship? I think it will be this: That teachers who also have red blood will make more strenuous demand for real scholarship, and will get it. The need of improvement at this point is urged and should not be discounted. But one word is to be added: We must be willing to stop short of the highest possible scholarship in our American schools, if that last finish of scholarly excellence costs never so little of the real vigor of American life. The life is more, even, than scholarship.

We have been considering thus far the secondary school in the light of the doctrine that the school is life. It has necessarily been a hasty view. Some of the most significant and far-reaching consequences of that doctrine have not been touched. But we hasten on to another view, which has been foreshadowed, and is not altogether another. Our adolescent student is continually reaching out after larger conceptions of duty and opportunity. With him, one wave of subjective egoism is succeeded by a wave of devotion to larger human interests. He may be as much an egoist as ever when he contemplates the glory of self-sacrifice for the good of one's fellowmen, but his egoism is then

finding its own corrective. In like manner, we turn now to the broad question of the relation of secondary education to public interests, but with no sense of breaking with the doctrine we have been considering.

One of the most notable of recent writers on the subject of secondary education is the French sociologist and philosopher, M. Alfred Fouillée. Within the past two years, he has made important contributions to the current discussion of the reform of secondary education in France. But his general position was set forth with great clearness, ten years ago, in his book entitled *Education from a national standpoint*. This work deals, you will remember, with the schools of France. We need a full discussion of American education from the national standpoint, or rather, from the public standpoint, which includes the national. Doubtless some one will give us such a work in due time. But in this latter half of my paper, I wish to point out some current tendencies as seen from the standpoint of public interests.

The spirit of democracy is abroad in modern societies, whatever their form of government. Rightly understood, it is one of the choicest possessions of our modern civilization. So one of the most searching tests of any educational tendency is its bearing upon essential democracy.

By essential democracy, I understand the spirit which values men according to their manhood. It is the spirit which judges of men on the ground of inherent worth, and not on the ground of such fortuitous attributes as birth or wealth or mere reputation. Democracy surely recognizes differences among men. It sees that some must lead and some must follow. Its peculiarity is that it seeks by all means to devolve leadership on him who is fittest to lead.

More than this, true democracy recognizes in men a diversity of gifts, such that each man is destined to lead in some things and to follow in others, to lead in some relations in life and to follow in other relations. That is, to lead wisely and to follow wisely are the correlated duties of every man in a democratic society. Democracy in the long run puts the highest price on preëminence in each of the several walks of life. It puts a price

on preëminence of every sort, and teaches every man to respect the different capacities of other men. The question, then, to put to our institutions of secondary education is this: Do they help every student to find himself and his fellowmen? For a portion of its students, secondary education may share this responsibility with the education of the higher schools. But the responsibility falls upon the secondary school in a peculiar way, for the reason that this grade of instruction deals with a stage of development in which the student is for the first time, as it were, in possession of his complete equipment of instincts, powers, and passions, and is, accordingly, for the first time fairly face to face with his destiny.

1. Now let us attempt to trace some bearings of this view upon current tendencies in our secondary education. In the first place, what are secondary schools doing, and what can they do, to maintain and advance the spirit of true democracy? I do not see that this question has much to do with the question of social "sets" and all that sort of thing. It is rather a question whether the youth in our schools are learning to value human worth for what it is, and not for what it has, and are learning that they are responsible, each for a social service peculiarly his own. Diversity of education is not necessarily a bar to such instruction; but every sort of educational snobbishness is its deadly enemy.

The public high school has long been regarded as one of the bulwarks of our democracy. But with the great increase of wealth in recent years there has grown up a new and very strong demand for private schools. Some of the grounds of such a demand have been previously considered. The growth of private fortunes has simply made it possible for a large number of families to follow their own preferences in this matter. But this is not all. There has been another ground for this demand, and that has been the desire for social exclusiveness. It was to be expected that schools would be opened which would meet these several requirements; and not a few of those which have come into existence are such as would satisfy fastidious tastes in their material equipment and the general excellence of their management.

With these well-known facts in mind, it is a surprise to learn from the statistics compiled by the Bureau of Education that this movement toward private education has not yet begun to compete to any marked degree with the public high-school movement. Up to the eighties of the nineteenth century, less than half of the secondary-school students in the United States were in public high schools. Within that decade the proportion was reversed. In the year 1889-90, the public high schools contained more than two thirds of our secondary-school students, and this proportion has increased every year since that time, so far as the reports have yet been published. The city of New York has made a wonderful contribution to this increase. What is still more noteworthy, since the year 1893-4, the percentage of our whole population attending private secondary schools, and even the total number of students in attendance on such schools, has actually been going backward.

It is hardly to be expected that this state of things will last; but so far as the tendency of the immediate present is concerned, it is clear that public secondary education is very far in the ascendancy and still on the gain.

In the main, I think we may safely assume that public high schools are democratic in tone, and serve to reinforce the democratic spirit in our society. But we must not carry this assumption too far. There is need, even in public schools, to guard against the subtle danger of valuing men for something other than what they are. It would be a very great mistake, too, to assume that the tendency of private schools is mainly or even largely undemocratic. I do not think that such is the case. A large and well-established academy certainly seems to have a democracy of its own, which imposes a wholesome check on some forms of exclusiveness.

There is constant need, however, to guard, in private schools and in all schools for that matter, against the danger of artificial standards. Especially do the teachers of private schools which have a reputation for exclusiveness need to guard their students against this danger. There can be no doubt that many such teachers are faithful to a high degree in this matter. And the

reward of their faithfulness is this: the knowledge that they are not only promoting the moral uplift of their own students, but are also serving important public ends. I believe there are families whose only chance of getting a breath of real, American, democratic air is the training the youth of those families get in schools that educate.

2. M. Fouillée, in the work referred to, contended that the "selection of superiorities" is one chief form of service which the school must render the state. The saying may be accepted with all heartiness. Just because democracy is so easily perverted into a system of "leveling down," the schools need by all means to keep faith with its true spirit, and seek for latent leadership as for hid treasure. As our schools grow in numbers, it becomes increasingly difficult to give special stimulus to those of more than ordinary endowment, that they may make the most of the gift that is in them. The chief gain that we are making in this respect is not in any improvement in system, but rather in the more general employment in the schools of teachers of thorough preparation, who are capable of making their instruction generally stimulating.

But democracy does more than demand that the schools shall find and develop natural leaders. It demands that the schools shall find and develop in each pupil his peculiar side of leadership. This is even more difficult than the other. Here, again, the growth of our schools is a hindrance to their efficiency. Here comes in new emphasis on the responsibility of the principals of schools. Here, too, we find some of the good effects of the movement toward the freer election of studies. It has been suggested that the secondary-school course be so arranged that at the close of each two-year period the student be allowed to make a new election, but that within this period his course be relatively unchangeable. There seems to be wisdom in this recommendation. It amounts to this, that at a given time a two-year course be mapped out in accordance with the best knowledge then available as to the student's quality and capability, that he be kept at this course long enough to show whether the choice was a good one for him or not, and that at

the end of this period choice be made for the ensuing two years in the light of the experience of the past. This would make the course of training a continued trial of the student's quality, with a view to finding his best. And that, I think, is what every secondary course should be. By some such means we might save many misfits in life, without running into those endless term-to-term readjustments which only render a course of instruction jerky and generally hysterical. It is something like this that the Germans are trying to do under the Frankfort plan, only that plan provides for three-year periods instead of two. The fact that this tendency is international emphasizes its importance. It is, in truth, the current form of the demand that secondary education shall help the student to find himself. The demand has come from the psychological side of education. It comes now from the national side.

Such a system as this could be made much more effective in a six-year or an eight-year high school than in our ordinary four-year schools. The tendency toward an extension of the secondary course upward and downward can barely be referred to here for lack of time. It is as yet more a tendency of thought than of practice. Yet we see some signs of its finding its way down to the ground. It seems not unlikely that we shall have, side by side with our present system, numerous experiments with secondary schools which take in the last year or two of the present elementary course, and with the same or other schools so organized as to cover the first two years of the present college course. It is very desirable that such experiments be made. In the making of such experiments, it would seem possible for private schools to render one important service to our secondary education. And we can be content to let the matter work itself out under the wisdom taught by experience.

But there is another tendency of large significance, which has to do with the effort to find for every citizen his place of most effective service. I refer to the movement which is giving us vocational schools of secondary grade.

We seem to be coming to a more general and insistent

demand that men shall have training for their work in life. Since the breaking down of the old order of trade guilds and apprenticeship, the need of regular training has long been observed. There is an American notion of long standing which has added to this obscurity. The notion that special training for any particular service is a reflection on the brightness of the person trained. If he had gumption, he would be able to do his work without having to learn how to do it. This does not seem to have been the colonial view, but it grew up rather in the earlier part of the nineteenth century. This crude conceit is now passing away. Training of the highest sort is now provided in the professions, particularly in medicine. Teaching still lags in this respect, but is trying to catch up. The several forms of engineering are already firmly placed on the platform of technical training. As regards the trades, progress has been slow, but progress has surely been making. The idea of specific training has reappeared, but in a different world from that of the trade guilds, with their system of apprenticeship. It is a world of schools. When this age undertakes to rebuild the old, mediæval idea that each man shall be master of his own craft, it will do it through a system of trade schools. In fact, this seems to be what we are coming to: A view of public education which plans to make the schooling of every pupil culminate in training for some occupation in life. We will say to our youth: "You have left school before school is out if you have not learned in school to do your daily work."

Such vocational training is to be postponed as far as possible. It is to rest upon the most extended general schooling which the individual can get, but it is to be the rounding out, the flower and fruit, of the general schooling of all. More than this, the two types of education are not to be sharply distinguished one from another. They are to shade into each other, each is to reinforce the other. The ideal of useful occupation will ennoble the more general instruction of the lower schools, and the ideals of liberal education will ennoble the school of trades. The future artisan will be encouraged to be as much of an artist as he can be. Such is my dream. If some of it sounds

like what Ruskin or William Morris dreamed a half a century ago, I do not know that it is any the worse for that.

This tendency, I think, is already upon us, and it seems reasonable to believe that the enormous expansion of high-school attendance in this country of late, with the attendant effort of the schools to meet the needs of all, is in part a gathering up of the forces of our American youth preparatory to a more general mastery of the daily business of life.

The growth of secondary schools of a technical and commercial sort is bringing with it a new set of problems. We must not stop to consider them here. Within the next few years the discussion of them will very likely fill a large place on the program of your annual convocation.

Two principles I have tried to set forth which I should like now to recapitulate side by side. First, the general culture of secondary grade, which is needed for life, is practically identical with that which best fits for the higher education. Secondly, the final stage in the schooling of every individual should not be of the nature of general culture, but it should be instead a direct preparation for a particular vocation in life. I take it that these are two of the principles which will influence our secondary education within the next few years. Neither of them can be accepted as finality. They are working hypotheses, subject to correction as we go along.

3. Our secondary education, then, is meeting a public need in the promotion of real democracy, and in helping individuals to find their field of most effective service. In the third place it is meeting a public need in the largest sense by promoting a wholesome civic spirit. Those who are experimenting with schemes for self-government in high schools are aiming, among other things, to create an intelligent interest in municipal affairs. The study of American history and civil government is taking a larger place in the high-school curriculum. The neglect of these subjects in the past has been one of the most striking anomalies in our courses of instruction. American literature is also receiving ample attention in both elementary and secondary schools.

The emphasis thus laid on the national spirit in our schools is

not peculiar to this country. It is characteristic of our time. The tendency which it represents calls for strong approval. I trust I shall not be misunderstood when I add that local or even national spirit cannot be regarded as the final and absolute end of our education. We have been living in an age when nationality is seen as the ultimate object of patriotism. But that age is passing. The strenuous effort of the German emperor to make the German *Gymnasium* more intensely national is only one indication of this fact. It can hardly be doubted that we are moving toward a time when our country will be the world, and patriotism will mean devotion to the interests of mankind. The growing importance of international law, the advance of international coöperation, the gradual unification of the ideals of civilization, and a hundred other indications point in this direction. It is no utopian view that I would present. The progress I speak of is slow, but it has been mightily accelerated within the memory of living men. The time to live and die for one's country is not past, it will not pass in our day, but just as surely as in times gone by the voice of patriotism has called men to fight for their nation as opposed to a rebellious section, just so surely a time will come when the voice of patriotism will call on men to fight for humanity as opposed to any nation that rebels against the general interests of humanity.

Our highest aspiration for our country is not that it shall overcome others—that it shall make itself the biggest nation among a crowd of envious lesser nations—but rather that it shall contribute most to the realization of that higher “federation of the world.”

So the tendency of our secondary education which will in the end promote the truest patriotism, is the tendency to look to the highest good of all mankind. This is only another way of saying that as our schools grow more national they should also grow more truly humanistic. The older humanism was devotion to an ideal, to be sure, but an abstract ideal. The newer humanism of the schools cannot well dispense with the best that the older humanism had to offer. But it will cease to be abstract. It will call forth a spirit of devotion, not to an ideal republic

of the past, but to the commonwealth of the present and the greater commonwealth of the future.

The youth in our secondary schools are ready to be swayed toward either sordid selfishness or the most generous self-devotion. The best that the schools can do to guard them against self-centered commercialism, is to awaken their enthusiasm for some ideal good, which has power of appeal to their imagination. Literature and history can make such appeal, by awakening the sentiment of patriotism. And they will make this appeal at its best when they give our youth some glimpses of the larger patriotism, of the universal good, which we hope to see our country serving in the days that are to come, as no nation has served it since the nations began to be.

So I look to see humanism as dominant in the schools of the twentieth century as it was in those of the sixteenth; but a new humanism, leaning hard on science, mindful of the past, patriotic in the present, and looking hopefully forward to the larger human interests that have already begun to be.

I am deeply conscious, ladies and gentlemen, that I have failed to present any adequate treatment of the great theme which you assigned to me. Many aspects of the subject which will seem to some of you of paramount importance, I have had to pass without discussion or even without mention. I have tried to lay stress on some of the chief tendencies, already observable, which offer good hope for the future. Broadly speaking, the dominant movements seem to me to appear in the effort to put life, real life, fullness of life into the school; and in the effort to make the school minister in the largest sense to the public good. These efforts tend, for one thing, toward greater flexibility in our courses of study, but also toward something more than flexibility. Our boys and girls belong to the highest form of life, and it is a vertebrate course of study that they require.

They tend to emphasize the importance of making and discovering real teachers. President Wheeler, whom you sent to us in California, much to our gain, has said, "I am convinced that teachers are not exclusively born." We have only to add that teachers, both born and made, must needs be discovered.

These efforts tend further toward coöperation and division of labor between public and private secondary schools, in meeting somewhat of the religious need of adolescents; and in promoting that sort of democracy which knows that

A man's a man for a' that.

They bend toward the practical recognition of the doctrine, to every man his work and preparation to do his work.

They tend toward nationalism which is not the nationalism of, "My country, right or wrong," but the nationalism of, "My country for the enlightenment of the world."

The consideration of tendencies in secondary education just now brings us near to the very heart of our civilization. For the past decade we have seen secondary-school problems occupying a central place in the thought of the great culture nations. It has been a decade of secondary-school reforms. The great milestones in the progress of those reforms have been the December Conference at Berlin in 1890, and the revision of Prussian curricula which followed; the report of our own Committee of Ten in 1894; the report of the English Parliamentary Commission on Secondary education in 1895; and the establishment of the English Board of Education to give effect to recommendations which this commission presented; the report of the Committee on College-Entrance Requirements, of our National Educational Association, in 1899; the report, in 1899 and 1900, of the commission appointed by the French Chamber of deputies; the Brunswick Declaration of 1900; and the other important acts and expressions growing out of the so-called Frankfort Plan. It is a most remarkable ten-year record, and warrants the belief that we have just been passing through one of the greatest formative epochs in the history of secondary schools. In America it has been, not a time of crisis, as in the nations of Europe, but rather a time of unparalleled progress. In 1888-9 one third of 1 per cent. of our population was enrolled in our secondary schools; in 1888-9 nearly four fifths of 1 per cent. was so enrolled, and in eighteen states this proportion was more than 1 per cent. If the figures at hand are correct, this is by far the largest proportion of any great people to be

found pursuing studies of this grade, Prussia showing a little less than one half of 1 per cent. and France a trifle less than Prussia.

It is the public high schools that have done it. Their attendance increased, in the period named, nearly 214 per cent., while all other secondary schools gained less than 9 per cent. It is evident that the high school has come to be a highly significant factor in our American life; raising our standard of living; giving currency to higher ideas and ideals; sending great numbers of our young people on to the universities and so accentuating in our age the character of a university age; increasing the range of selection in all occupations calling for the intermediate and higher grades of intelligence; forcing the wider differentiation of our courses of instruction by the very immensity and variety of the demands for instruction which must be satisfied.

It becomes in an important sense the mission of our secondary schools to help our people of all social and industrial grades and classes to understand one another; for they help the schools of all kinds and grades to understand one another. Especially is this true of the public high school, which lays, as it were, its hand directly upon both the primary schools and the universities.

It is a great thing, this promoting of a good understanding between all classes of our citizens. There will be times of crisis when it will be a paramount concern in our national life. We can view with patience even the bungling work occasionally done by politically-minded school boards in dealing with our high schools, when we realize that in just this way our *demos* is working toward an understanding of an institution, which in many lands the *demos* neither tries nor cares to understand. Even through temporary mismanagement of our higher educational institutions our people are coming to understand one another. And through better management they are coming to a better understanding.

It takes wisdom and patience and poise and unbounded

good-will to discharge the responsibilities of an intermediary position such as is occupied by our secondary schools. But, if these graces shall be in you and abound, teachers and managers of such schools, you shall deserve well of your country; and, even though we be a democracy, we shall not be wholly ungrateful.

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THE PLACE OF AMERICAN HISTORY IN THE HIGH-SCHOOL COURSE¹

A COMPREHENSIVE treatment of the subject of American history in the high school involves a discussion of at least four practical questions: (1) In which year of the high-school course can American history most profitably be given? (2) How much time, all things considered, should be devoted to it? (3) What should be the scope and substance of the course? (4) How can it best be presented? Being impressed with the importance of the first question, and knowing the varying practices in regard to it, I shall devote my attention chiefly to this one.

It is believed that these inquiries properly stand in the order here given. The third one, dealing with the substance of the course, and the fourth, relating to method, cannot most intelligently be discussed, much less "settled," if indeed any settlement is possible or even desirable, until it has been determined *when* the work is to be given and how much time is to be devoted to it; for, obviously, if American history is to be given in the first year to immature students fresh from the grammar school, the course cannot have the same scope and content as if given in the fourth year to students who have added three years of age and maturity since leaving the eighth grade. Neither, for similar reasons, can the course be given by the same methods; for, though fundamentally all methods of teaching history may properly be the same, yet in externals at least they must differ greatly to be adapted to students as widely separated in age and capacity as are first year and fourth year high-school pupils. Dr. John Dewey says that method in its last analysis is "reducible to the question of the order of development of the child's powers and interests. The law of presenting and treating material is the law implicit in the child's own nature."²

¹A paper read before the Interscholastic History Conference, at Madison, Wis., June 1, 1901. The general discussion was on the whole question of "American History in the High School."

²Quoted by Professor J. I. JEGI, in the *Journal of Adolescence*, Vol. I, No. 5, p. 180.

There seems to be little ground for controverting this opinion, and its application here is direct. A pupil who has but recently left the grammar school at twelve years of age is immature. Imagination and memory for concrete facts, to be sure, are about at their zenith, but the powers of critical comparison and abstract reasoning are comparatively undeveloped. He is in the acquisitive stage, with more interest in the dramatic forms of fact and episode than in their true historical meaning. But three years of growth make of him a very different unit of mentality. His interests, powers, and habits of thought are now on a higher plane; they must be appealed to by different means, and in turn they lead to different ends. Methods and scope, in other words, in American history as in any other subject, are conditioned by its place in the course.

If, then, the matter of the place in the course claims priority, and upon it there is not already some degree of uniformity in practice in high schools, it clearly seems to demand full and careful discussion. I believe it has important claims to priority, for the reasons above suggested; and facts show that upon it there is the widest possible variance in practice.

In response to ninety circulars sent out to accredited high schools of Wisconsin, sixty-seven replies were received in time for use in preparing this paper. One question asked was: "In what year of the course is American history given?" The returns show that the time ranges from the first to the fourth year—one school giving it in the first, forty-one in the second, twelve in the third, seven in the fourth, and five in the third and fourth, while one gives no American history at all beyond the grammar department. Taking these results to be representative, as I think they are, the showing is that somewhat less than two-thirds of the accredited schools in Wisconsin give the American history course in the second year, about one fifth in the third year, one tenth in the fourth, and nearly as many in the third and fourth.

While in a general way the larger schools put the American history latest, yet the above division does not appear to follow any clear classification of the schools on the basis of size, course,

instructional force, nor other visible conditions. For in one list we find towns large and small,¹ like Arcadia and Janesville, Durand and Fond du Lac, Clintonville and Stevens Point, Augusta and Merrill. In another list stand Mayville and Sheboygan. In the same list we find schools accredited for every course the university offers, and others that are accredited for but the agricultural and English courses. A school employing one assistant to the principal stands beside another employing nine. One in which history is taught by a normal graduate who may not have studied American history since leaving the high school, stands beside one in which the subject is taught by a man who first graduated from a normal school, then entered the University of Wisconsin where he took the civic-historical course, and finally took two years of graduate work in history. Thus the basis of division according to practice is extremely obscure.

Outside of Wisconsin there is as little unity of practice as within. The *Report of the Committee of Seven* shows that about one half of the schools of the country at large put American history late in the course, after general or European history; while the other half put it early in the curriculum, before European. Their statement of conditions is as follows:

(1) About one third of the schools follow the chronological method, taking up in succession ancient history, general history, and modern history in some form, usually English, or American, or both; that is they use general history as a bridge between ancient times and our modern nations. (2) A much smaller number of schools, perhaps a seventh of the whole, prefer the order: general, ancient, and modern; that is, first of all, a survey of the whole field and then more detailed study, first of the ancient period, then of the modern. This method is apparently less common in New England than in the West. (3) The third method begins with American, or sometimes with English history, and then takes general history, bringing in ancient history last. About one fifth of the schools reporting use this system, which is least common in the middle states, and which would seem to be devised to bring ancient history into a place convenient for college examinations. (4) A fourth method, which prevails in more than a quarter of the schools, is that of

¹The population of these places according to the last census is, given in order, 1273, 13,185; 1458, 15,110; 1653, 9524; 1256, 8537; 1815, 22,956. *Census Bulletin No. 54, February 7, 1901.*

beginning with American, following with ancient history, and ending with a general course; that is, they proceed from the particular to the general.¹

The lines of classification are dim here also. In short, there seems to be wide variations of practice in the matter everywhere, based on no visible differences in the condition of the different schools.

If, then, we are to discuss the scope and the method of presenting American history in the high school, we must either adapt our discussion to a shifting and indefinite basis or else come to some sort of a conclusion as to the time when the course can be most profitably given, and then, from this as a starting point consider the other questions.

I shall begin my contribution by a statement of my own conviction, namely, that American history in the high school should follow European history if any is given, and in any case should be as late in the course as possible, preferably in the fourth year, assuming no increase in the average amount of time devoted to history and no change from the present custom of five exercises per week, which, if practicable, would offer some advantages. I shall support my position by little that is new, but shall to a considerable extent restate arguments that have been given or suggested before in substance if not in form. If the arguments are tenable or the conclusion an accepted commonplace, we are justified in going over the ground with the hope that reiteration may help to bring practice into correspondence with opinion. If they are not tenable they are presented for criticism and correction.

The time when American history is to be given in the high school is conditioned to a large extent by the other history work the pupil has had, or is to get in the high-school course. The facts are that all students get more or less American history before they reach the high school. Most elementary schools give American biography extensively through the grades, while in the grammar department they give from eighteen to thirty-six weeks of regular American history with a text-book. These facts, as the *Report of the Committee of Seven* (p. 38) suggests,

¹*Report of the Committee of Seven, History in Schools*, pp. 140, 141.

satisfy the demand made by some that in teaching history we should begin with the familiar and near and proceed to the new and remote. But far more important, they furnish a positive argument for putting American history late in the high-school course whether American history alone is to be studied there, or European history is to be studied also.

1. Let us suppose that American history only is to be given. If this is given for the last time in the early years of the course the student must pursue it with little advance of mental strength since last he studied it; and as substance and method are both conditioned by the learner's mind, the course must be to a large degree similar in breadth, content, and method to the work done in the grammar school. It becomes essentially a review with the purpose of a review left out, a process which has not the highest educational value. If, then, only American history is to be included in the high school, in proportion as the final course comes late in the curriculum, in that degree will the student be able to bring to it greater maturity and new powers; developed reason and judgment supplementing memory, interest in facts for their content supplanting that for their dramatic form, power to generalize enhancing and raising the plane of interest in particulars; in that degree will the work become a *new view* rather than a *review* in the ordinary sense; and to that extent may the course consist of new and richer materials selected from wider sources, and worked into higher forms of thought product by more complex processes of study. Better, I should say, shift some other fourth year study, that offers entirely new interests and is to be taken but once, back to the second year, and put American history in its place, than to go over American history earlier than the third year. Better yet, if only one course is to come in the high school, and this must come in the second year, strengthen the grammar-school course and make that in the high school European rather than American history. Indeed, if only one year's history work is to be done in the high school, I think, since considerable American history work has been already done, that no matter in what year it is put, the purposes of culture and general intelligence may possibly be

better served by making it European history, or by combining English and American history according to the suggestions of the *Report of the Committee of Seven* on page 43. But in any case, if only American history be given in the high school and it is all to be given in one year, this final view should come late in the course if for no other reason than to admit of a lapse of time for mental growth after the grammar-school work, in order that the highest total good may be gained.

2. The case is even stronger when we start with the other assumption, that both European and American history be given in the high-school course. This assumption corresponds with the facts in the large majority of cases. Most high schools of good standing in every state give in addition to the American history, a year or more of non-American history, under the heads of general; ancient and English; or ancient, mediæval and modern history. That this should precede American history seems unquestionable, if alone on the grounds of chronological and logical sequence. And on purely psychological grounds the argument is even stronger. Apperceptively considered, a knowledge of American history must be insufficient unless based on some knowledge of the world's history. American history did not begin with John Smith nor with Christopher Columbus. This the student must not only know in the sense of having read or heard it so stated, but he must realize it by having come in touch with the history of other nations that contributed to the making of America. He must see the fundamental institutions of America in their relation to the history of mankind. In the words of one of the masters¹ "the political history of the American people can be rightly understood only when it is studied in connection with that general process of evolution which has been going on from the earliest times, and of which it is itself one of the most important and remarkable phases. . . . As the town meetings of New England are lineally descended from the village assemblies of the Aryans; as our huge federal union was long ago foreshadowed in the little leagues of Greek cities, and Swiss cantons; so the great political problem

¹ JOHN FISKE, *American Political Ideas*, Preface, pp. 6, 7.

which we are . . . solving, is the very same problem upon which all civilized peoples have been working ever since civilization began. . . . When thus considered our American history acquires added dignity and interest. When viewed in this light, moreover, not only does American history become especially interesting to Englishmen, but English history [and we may add world history] is clothed with fresh interest for Americans." In short, American development is the crowning work of a great part of human development. And in order that this may be in any sense realized, American history should be the culmination of any history course in American schools.

3. There is another consideration that is of no little weight. It is that the most intensive history course given should be the last, and that American history forms the best basis for such advanced forms of historical study as are possible with high-school classes.

Advanced history work must be done late in the course because of its difficulty. No study in the curriculum requires a higher order of powers than does a study of history by methods calculated to derive from it its true content, an introduction to which should in this day be the privilege of the student before he leaves the "people's college." To such work there must be brought power to assimilate, without distraction, reading far wider than the text. There must be training in the use of books, in patient search for facts, discrimination in their selection, and judgment in their classification and interpretation. All this is necessary to make even a beginning in truest historical study; and all this demands a maturity that is not usually attained before the fourth high-school year.

As a basis for such work in American schools, American history furnishes materials more accessible, more abundant, and more intelligible than does English or other European history. I found, for example, through my questionnaire, that two thirds of the accredited high-school libraries in Wisconsin contain full or nearly complete sets of the American Commonwealth series and the American Statesmen series. These alone are a rich collection on American biography and local history. Few if

any of the libraries have parallel sets equally useful and extensive on as limited a field of European history. Indeed, none such are available to ordinary high schools. And even if they were possessed, they would be found less suitable for the purposes. To use detailed material, even secondary, for historical purposes, one needs a certain apperceptive background, gained through life experience, to give orientation into the life of the country studied. This the student has of American life, but seldom of European life at the high-school age. And when it comes to original sources, these for Europe in the first place are not accessible to high schools in abundance; and for any but recent times they are to a large extent unintelligible to the average high-school student except under the most careful guidance. American history materials, therefore, are more plentiful, accessible, and usable, and therefore more suitable for such intensive work as high-school students may have time to do. For this reason the American history course should be given at a time when the student is best able to do advanced work, which is not till late in the course.

It may be added in this connection that, other things being equal, it is perhaps less essential in preparation for American citizenship, that a minute knowledge of European than of American history be possessed.

4. Opinion is on the side of this position. This is the recommendation of the Committee of Seven¹ who speak with authority. In my inquiries in this state I found that many who are giving American history in the second or even the third year believe it should be given later. Of the forty-one schools in which it is studied in the second year, only eighteen of the principals are satisfied with its place. Nineteen express a positive opinion that it should be placed later; three are undecided; and one gives no answer to this question. Of the sixty-six schools giving American history, forty-four principals, just two thirds, positively think that it should be later than the second year. Of these, fifteen voted for the fourth year, fifteen for the third or fourth, and fourteen for the third. It is important to

¹ *Report*, pp. 36, 37.

note in this connection that some of these men are principals whose interests are scientific or classical. Others are devotees of European rather than American history. All have the interests of the whole curriculum at heart. This illustrates a strong feeling in Wisconsin in favor of the position taken. Of thought elsewhere, the oft quoted Committee of Seven reports "an investigation of existing conditions leads us to believe that there is a strong tendency to place American history in the last year of the course."

To summarize the considerations thus far :

The place where American history is to appear in the course claims priority for discussion because other questions hinge upon it to a large degree, because there seems to be a baseless variation in practice, and because the dominant practice seems to be contrary to the best teachings and opinions.

It is believed that American history should come after European history if any is given, and in any case late in the course, preferably the fourth year, because, first, American history is extensively studied below the high school; second, to take it again and for the last time in the early years of the course would not be so profitable in total results as if given later; third, when European history is to be given, the laws of chronological and logical sequence and the psychology of apperception dictate that it should precede American history; fourth, American history furnishes a better basis than European for such intensive history work as may be given, which should come late in the course because of the high order of powers it involves; fifth, opinion here and elsewhere, not by any means confined to American history specialists, favors putting the American history as late in the course as possible.

In conclusion, the hopeful consideration to anyone who takes this position is that a large part of what is asked can be gained without colliding with science, English, Latin, or with any other interest. Most of the better schools give both European and American history. Such have only to change the order of the two to put American history on a much higher plane than it at present occupies. All that has gone before has

been based on the assumption that only the present amount of time be devoted to history. What would seem a strong presumption in favor of both plenty of time for history and also for a choice place for it in the course is the fact that a dominant current of thought is today along historical and sociological channels. The historical method of inquiry pervades every other subject. Interest in history is becoming widespread, and that in our own country's history especially so. This is evidenced by the fact that American history has a much better place in the school curriculum than it had a decade ago. Indeed, this interest has been forced upon us by the nature of our current problems which lie so largely in civic, economic and sociologic lines. It is being recognized that fitness to cope with these problems can come only to a conservative, historical-minded and enlightened public, who not only can see need of reform, but who also understand the process and laws of institutional growth. It is being recognized that one of the most practical and useful forms of equipment that can be given a maturing person just ready to enter into the duties of active citizenship, is a knowledge of how our American institutions came to be, as a clue to knowing whither they are tending. It is recognized that this can come only with an intelligent and considerable study of American history. It is not too much to hope that this recognition will be reflected in the school course both in the amount and the disposition of the time devoted to this subject.

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CHARLES HOOLE AND ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

A PETTY SCHOOL. 1660

THERE is no calling more serviceable to Church and Commonwealth than this of a School Master; none that is more perplexingly toilsome where Art and Discretion, the two essentials of a School Master, are wanting—seeing we have especially to deal with children's imperfections, which are warily to be observed and censured.*

So Hoole strikes the keynote of his work: *A New Discovery of the Old Art of Teaching School*—the observing of children with a view of helping their "imperfections." He does not indeed reach to the modern position that every stage of growth in life has a perfection which is appropriate and adequate to itself, but he does see (and herein consists the greatness of Hoole) that in the work of teaching it is the pupil who is the end to be considered. The teacher is the means to the promotion of the good of the child. The child is never to be regarded as merely a means to the teacher's good.

The *New Discovery* is divided into four small treatises dealing with:

1. A petty school.
2. The usher's duty.
3. The master's method.
4. Scholastic discipline.

The sections on the usher's duty and the master's method are chiefly concerned with the teaching of the classics (Latin, Greek, and Hebrew), whilst the treatise on a petty school deals with little children before the stage of studying grammar. Scholastic discipline is described as the way of ordering a grammar school, directing the not-experienced, how he may profit every particular scholar, and avoid confusion amongst a multitude.

It would, of course, be inexact to speak of Hoole as the first writer on the teaching of English to children. As early as 1590

* In Hoole's address at the beginning of his book to "All favourers of good learning, but more especially to the teachers of Grammar."

Edmund Coote had written his *English Schoolmaster*, or text-book for teaching English spelling, and earlier still, in 1582, Richard Mulcaster in his *Elementarie* had insisted on the nobility of the English language, in comparison even with Latin and Greek.

Though there had been these writers on the study of English by children—yet Hoole's *Petty School* may be described as the first pedagogical treatise on the teaching of very little children in anything like a modern spirit. The headings of the chapters in the treatise are: I. How a child may be helped in the first pronunciation of his letters. II. How a child may be taught with delight to know all his letters in a very little time. III. How to teach a child to spell distinctly. IV. How a child may be taught to read any English book perfectly. V. Wherein children for whom the Latin tongue is thought to be unnecessary are to be employed after they can read English well. VI. Of the founding of a petty school. VII. Of the discipline of a petty school

There are two points of the first importance which show the difference between the treatment of English as a school-subject by Mulcaster and by Hoole. First, the teaching of reading and English are not dwelt upon by Hoole for the same reason as by Mulcaster, viz., the extreme interest and value of English as a subject to be acquired, but the study of English is inculcated as being one which the child can follow "with delight," if it be properly taught. It is a difference of point of view. Mulcaster is thinking of the subject, Hoole is thinking of the child. The second point is that whilst Mulcaster in his *Elementarie* regards English as a preparatory subject to entrance into the grammar school, Hoole has in mind the teaching of English as an appropriate discipline for those even who will not go on to learn Latin grammar. Here, then, he is at the point of view of the modern elementary school at its best.

The spirit of Hoole's teaching is well shown in his treatment of the teaching of the letters of the alphabet. He gives devices, such as the provision of twenty-four pieces of ivory with a letter on each. He suggests that the teacher should play with the child and showing him each as it is thrown on a table. And

again, he has the letters engraven on the sides of dice, so that by means of "sport" the child may be taught the letters. Further, he suggests pictures in a little book, and states that he has himself published a *New Primer*, wherein he has joined twenty-four pictures or images of some things whose names begin with different letters of the alphabet—where A stands for an ape and B for a bear, and so on. This probably was embodied by Hoole in the translation he made of Comenius's *Orbis Pictus*. He gives another method of teaching the alphabet by a little round box which contained a wheel with the letters of the alphabet, which showed themselves, as they went round, through a hole in the box. This had been invented by one who had taught a child two and one half years old, with the greatest success. As to which Hoole remarks:

By this instance you may see what a propensity there is in nature betimes to learning, could but the teachers apply themselves to their young scholar's tenuity; and how by proceeding in a clear and facile method that all may apprehend, every one may benefit more or less by degrees.

In spelling, Hoole observes that some teachers pronounce their children mere blockheads and incapable of learning anything, when by fitter methods other teachers declare that they have not met with "any such thing as a dunce amid a great multitude of little scholars." He could not have expressed more strongly the value of the study of methods in relation to the capacity of children. He has a belief in children, and not much in the traditionary methods. We could imagine that it is Pestalozzi or Froebel who is speaking when Hoole says (quoting as authorities Cicero and Erasmus¹): "It is as natural for a child to learn as it is for a beast to go, a bird to fly, or a fish to swim. . . . And could the Master have the discretion to make their lessons familiar to them, children would as much delight in being busied about them, as in any other sport, if too long continuance at them might not make them tedious." He praises the books on reading written by Mr. Roe, Mr. Robinson², and Mr. Coote. "Their books," he says, "are to be had in print, but every one hath not the art to use them."

¹ This was said also by Quintilian.

² I cannot find any trace of either Dr. Roe or Mr. Robinson's books.

Hoole devotes a chapter to children for whom Latin is thought unnecessary. He disputes the position of those who think Latin unnecessary for boys who go into trades, or those who are to be "drudges" at home or those employed in husbandry. He holds (1) that even a little Latin is useful in "the understanding of *English* authors. The ground of learning Latin for the sake of English is interesting. (2) Abroad, it is said, every peasant is able to converse in Latin. Why should England be behind? (3) The non-improvement of children's time after learning to read throws open a gap for all loose kind of behaviour. "Being then (as is too commonly to be seen, especially with the poorer sort) taken from the school, and permitted to run wilding up and down without any control, they adventure to commit all manner of lewdness, and so become a shame and dishonour to their friends and country."¹

These reasons, Hoole considers, might induce parents to keep their children at school longer so as to learn Latin. If they do not, then he holds it would be better that they should go to another school—a writing (as opposed to a grammar) school, where they should be helped (1) to keep up their English by reading a chapter at least once a day; and (2) be taught to write a fair hand; (3) be exercised in arithmetic and other subjects.² This is the first instance I know of the collocation of reading, writing, and arithmetic as the main subjects of teaching in a school. Hoole's suggestion goes further. In this writing school there should not be in his opinion *any* teaching of Latin—not even of the *accidence*. This should be entirely reserved for the grammar school.

In the place of the Latin *accidence* (which young children "do neither understand nor profit by") they are to read not only the ordinary religious books used for the purpose,³ but also delightful books of English history, as the *History of Queen Elizabeth*, or poetry, as Herbert's *Poems*, Quarles' *Emblems*. This is

¹ See article on Samuel Harmar (*Educational Review*, June 1894, London) for still more emphatic statement of this.

² *Petty School*, pp. 25–26.

³ Brinsley's list was confined to books on religion and manners.

the earliest passage known to me which suggests the teaching of English literature by reading set books. Hoole's arguments are commonplace enough now, but are remarkable for his own time:

By this means they (children) will gain such a habit and delight in reading as to make it their chief recreation, when liberty is afforded them. And their acquaintance with good books will (by God's blessing) be a means so to sweeten their (otherwise sour¹) natures that they may live comfortably towards themselves and amiably converse with other persons.

It appears that petty schools were frequently—at the time of the Commonwealth, as before and after—in the hands of poor women or other necessitous persons.² Hoole urges that this state of things should not be allowed to continue—if for no other reason, since the first principles of religion and learning have to be taught there. He suggests that rich people ought to provide endowments so that good teachers can be attracted. With a fixed yearly stipend—Hoole suggests at least twenty pounds a year—and convenient dwelling, with liberty to take young children to board and to ask fair fees from those able to pay, the master might be expected to take all such poor boys as could conveniently attend the schools *free of cost*. A post on such conditions, Hoole thinks, would attract a man of good parts. The qualifications for such a master of the petty school are given:

I would have him to be a person of a pious, sober, comely, and discreet behaviour, and tenderly affectionate towards children, having some knowledge of the Latin tongue, and ability to write a fair hand, and good skill in arithmetic, and then let him move within the compass of his own orb, so as to teach all his scholars (as they become capable) to read English very well, and afterwards to write and cast accounts. And let him not at all meddle with teaching the accidence, except only to some more pregnant wits, which are intended to be set forwards to learn Latin, and for such be sure that he ground them well, or else dismiss them as soon as they can read distinctly and write legibly, to the Grammar School.

Hoole's *Petty School*, then, I take to be the first adumbration of a modern elementary school scheme. His suggestion does not go far in the way of organization, for he merely urges those

¹ This is a direct borrowing of Mulcaster's words regarding music.

² "As a mere shelter," he adds, from beggary.

who are rich to give endowments toward the erection and endowment of petty schools in those places with which they are by birth or otherwise connected. But in his plan of studies—reading, literature, writing, and arithmetic—he clearly defined what was afterwards adopted as the basis of the work of the early elementary schools.

In the chapter on the discipline of a petty school, Hoole insists that the teaching of good manners is a main part of good education. Accordingly such books as *Erasmus de Moribus* and *Youth's Behaviour* must be taught. The school hour is 8 o'clock, or, in a case of weakness, 9. Neatness in dress and cleanliness are to be insisted upon. Play is to be allowed before school. Obeisance is to be made to the master on his coming into the school. There is to be roll-call, a reading of a chapter, a short prayer fitted for the school, and a hymn. There are four forms, in the lowest of which the letters of the alphabet are to be learned from the *Primer*. In the second spelling is to be learned from the Single Psalter. In the third reading is learned from the Bible. The boys in the fourth are exercised in reading, writing, and casting accounts, whose lessons "may be in such profitable English books as the parents can best provide and the master thinks fittest to be taught." Striving for places is to be encouraged; corporal punishment discouraged. The Lord's Prayer, the Creed, the Ten Commandments, and Catechism are to be known to all, and regular hours set aside for them.

Morning school ends at 11, and afternoon school begins at 1 o'clock and goes on till 5 o'clock in the summer and 4 o'clock in the winter. Monitors are to be used. No more than forty boys are to be allotted to one man. If more are in a form a master will have to make use of scholars to teach the rest,¹ which Hoole considers occasions "too much noise and disorder and is no whit so acceptable to parents or pleasing to the children be the work never so well done." So Hoole proposes in petty schools at least one master to every forty boys, though he

¹ The first notice of this pupil-teacher system I have come across is in Thomas Popeson's ordinance (1592) to Bungay School (Suffolk): "Some of the hygest forme, shall weekly, by course instruct the first forme, both in their accidence and also in giving them copies to write."

does not hesitate to suggest it will be well in addition to have a writing-master and a "supervisor or inspector."

Hoole states that in the chief points of this description he is speaking from his own experience, for he had had a few boys as preparatory pupils and had intended to adjoin a petty school to his private grammar school at the token house in Lothbury, London, "and there to have proceeded in this familiar and pleasing way of teaching, had I not been unhandsomely dealt with by those whom it concerned for their own profit sake to have given me less discouragement."

We are reminded by this complaint of John Brinsley's chapter¹ on the "Discouragements of Schoolmasters by Unthankfulness of Parents. In spite of all, says Brinsley, we schoolmasters "must labour to be faithful in our places, in the best courses and kinds." So, too, thinks Hoole, and what he cannot accomplish himself he writes for the suggestion of others. "In the meantime I entreat those into whose hands this little work may come, to look upon it with a single eye, and whether they like or dislike it, to think that it is not unnecessary for men of greatest parts to bestow a sheet or two at leisure time upon so mean a subject as this seems to be."

Elementary education is now secure against being esteemed a "mean" subject, and now the cause is won, Charles Hoole's name as a pioneer claims recognition, and homage "from all "favourers of good learning," and "more especially" from "teachers."

"I humbly request," says Hoole, of the trustees and subscribers, "that as they have happily contrived a model for the education of students and brought it on a sudden to a great degree of perfection, so they would also put to their hands for the improvement of school-learning, without which such choice abilities as they aim at in order to the ministry cannot possibly be obtained."

Hoole refers to a prospectus issued by Matthew Poole, the well-known annotator of the Bible, in 1658. It is entitled "A Model for the maintaining of Students of choice abilities at the University and principally in order to the Ministry. With

¹ Chap. xxxiii, *Ludus Literarius*.

Epistles and Recommendations and an Account of the settlement and Practice of it in the Universities from the doctors there." It is an urgent appeal for funds to maintain forty scholars in each university, who while undergraduates were to have £10 each per annum, while bachelors £20, and when masters £30. They were to be examined half-yearly, and to have employment or preferment found them according to their powers, on completion of their studies. Calamy says that some £900 per annum was actually collected.

The exhibitions generally were to be given to "such as intend the ministry . . . , yet so, as that the trustees may upon weighty reasons and sparingly dispose of some of them, to such, as, though not intending the ministry, may be other ways eminently serviceable to the Church or Commonwealth." Hoole evidently thinks schoolmasters should be included.

For reprint of Matthew Poole's "Model" and further details see Professor J. E. B. Mayor's *Cambridge in the 17th Century: Autobiography of Matthew Robinson*.

Hoole states that Dr. Bathurst, lately deceased, and Mr. Gouge had promoted petty schools to which poor children might be sent and be taught *gratis*. FOSTER WATSON

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE,
Aberystwyth, Wales

NOTE.—In his *Usher's Duty* Hoole says that in the interim of getting the accidence by heart in the grammar school, children lose the ability of reading English which they brought from the petty school. Children are "therefore sometimes taken and sent back again to a mistress or a dame to learn English better."

It is quite clear that petty schools were taught by mistresses and dames and these not of the most learned kind. Edmund Coote's *English Schoolmaster*, the twenty-sixth edition of which appeared in 1656, shows us the common sort of master of a petty school. He says: "I direct my speech to the *unskilful*, which desire to make use of it for their own private benefit and to such *men and women of trade* as tailors, weavers, shopkeepers, seamsters and such others, as have undertaken the charge of teaching others. . . . (With this book) thou shalt teach thy scholars with better commendation and profit than any other (not following this order) teacheth, and thou mayest sit on thy *shop-board*, at thy looms, or at thy needle, and never hinder thy work to hear thy scholars, after thou hast once made this little book familiar to thee."

Teaching of little children was therefore a means of eking out a livelihood to the inferior sort of workmen and women who had wholly or partly to provide for themselves.

RECENT EDUCATIONAL BIBLIOGRAPHY.¹

IV.

THERE is no satisfactory bibliography of educational literature in English, because no compiler has ever systematically and thoroughly included periodical literature or has listed separately the articles in the publications of the British and American bureaus of education and educational societies. This is, to be sure, now being done for current literature by the annual bibliography of education printed in every April number of the *Educational Review*, the second number of which is noted elsewhere in this article; but the vast body of widely scattered miscellaneous educational literature which has grown up in the past thirty years is not accessible in any one record or series of records, and is available only in varying degrees through the use of a number of different indexes, several of them quite unsatisfactory and some of them unknown to most educational workers because made primarily by and for librarians and not teachers.

Beside these general indexes, it is possible for the student of educational literature to stand on the shoulders of preceding workers in certain fields, who have left behind them records of the references which they found useful in the study of certain subjects.

Formerly this reference to authorities was made very informally in the text or in vague and scanty footnotes. Of late it is more and more common for the author of a book or monograph to append a formal bibliography, where he lists all the literature bearing on his theme which he has used or come to know.

It is plain that if such bibliographies could be regularly discovered and noted they would be of much use to later students, to professors, and teachers in compiling syllabi and reading lists,

¹ Numbers 1, 2, and 3 of this series are in *SCHOOL REVIEW* for October, 1898, 1899, and 1900.

to libraries in directing searchers to desired information and in many other ways.

It is the purpose of these annual articles in each October number of the *SCHOOL REVIEW* to record every item of this sort under the proper subject heading and to add such critical and descriptive comment as shall seem helpful and proper.

There is a wide difference in the merit of these bibliographies thus noted. A very bad reference list may accompany a very good book; often, indeed, a hotch-potch of more or less relevant titles is tossed together without order, method, accuracy, or comment and labeled "Bibliography."

Many such lists might be very much improved by a little extra work, intelligently done according to accepted bibliographical criteria. To the end that future lists recorded in these articles from year to year may be made of the utmost value, it seems worth while to set down a few of the points which mark a good bibliography and which are too often disregarded.

1. *Annotation:* How slight is the value of a bare list of titles on "History of Education" compared with a list which tells you that this volume is an absurd compilation by a man who knows nothing about the subject; that the next is a dry-as-dust skeleton of facts confessedly written to be crammed for teachers' examinations; that a third is the best book in English on the subject, but comes only to the eighteenth century, etc. One loses patience with the man who, writing as an expert, with all the important literature of the subject under his eye, refuses to tell about it, but sets down a bare title for our use.

If the compiler dislikes to attempt critical evaluation, even mere descriptive notes giving author's point of view, his limitations of time or style, readers for whom it is most useful, etc., are always useful.

2. *Alphabetical arrangement by authors' surnames:* Not by titles, nor haphazard. If the author is a society or body corporate, consult a competent catalogue for form of entry. If bibliography is classified in sections, alphabet separately for each section.

3. *Bibliographical data*: An accurate title, place or publisher, and date are essential. Paging, price, and size are helpful.

4. *Material included should be pertinent, and references exact when special chapters, paragraphs, or articles are meant*: A recent history of education contains in the appended bibliography these titles:

Encyclopedia Britannica,
Educational Review,
 Stoddard: *Lectures on Travel*,
 Ridpath: *Library of Universal History*,

with no clue whatever as to what articles, volumes, or lectures are meant. The items would much better be omitted entirely than given in such form.

Fancy the state of mind of the student who wishes to do collateral reading on education in India and finds in this same volume, at the head of the chapter on that subject, these definite and illuminating references:

Spofford: *Library of Historic Characters*.
 Macaulay: *Essays*.
Encyclopedia Britannica.
 Arnold: *Light of Asia*.
 Marshman: *History of India*.

A little more pains and conscience worked into bibliography will greatly increase its value to readers and students.

The following are the most notable pieces of recent bibliography which seem likely to be of use to educational workers:

ARITHMETIC

Notes on the History of American Text-Books on Arithmetic. By J. M. GREENWOOD and ARTEMAS MARTIN (in *U. S. Bureau of Education; Report of the Commissioner*, 1897-8, Vol. I, 789-868, and 1898-9, Vol. I, 781-837).

A chronological list of all arithmetics ever published in this country of which copies can be found or records discovered.

The title-page is given in full, biographical data regarding authors, full descriptions, and tables of contents.

The first edition is described whenever possible and in most cases each volume has been examined by one of the compilers.

There is an author index to both parts at the end.

CHILD-STUDY

The Child: A Study in the Evolution of Man. By A. F. CHAMBERLAIN. 498 pp., O. New York, 1900.

On pages 465-495 are listed, in one alphabet, with ample data for references, 696 titles, mainly periodical articles, of which mention is made in the body of the book. As such a mention is the only criterion for inclusion, it follows that the list is neither a complete nor exactly a selected bibliography, but merely a long list of titles quoted by the author. A handy scheme of reference by number and page joins text and bibliography.

As the author expressly stipulates that his book is an anthropological study of the significance of the child and childhood in human evolution, the list closely reflects this phase of thought and is not along the usual psychological lines of child-study.

Three fourths of the titles given are neither in Mr. McDonald's nor in Mr. L. N. Wilson's lists, which are the fullest previous bibliographies of child-study, although many of Mr. Chamberlain's references are either too general or too restricted in matter to interest the ordinary reader.

Bibliography of Child-Study for the year 1899. By L. N. WILSON (in *Pedagogical Seminary*, December 1900, Vol. VII, 526-556).

Four hundred and forty-one titles from the second annual supplement to the lists begun in this journal for April 1898 and continued in September 1899. The list includes very much, perhaps nearly everything, that is important on the subject, and also many titles that are revelant only by a very broad and somewhat strained conception of the term child-study.

There seems to be no good reason for including Dutton, *Social Phases of Education*; Wright, *Outlines of Practical Sociology*; and other similar titles. More than one third of the articles listed are in foreign languages.

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

Bibliography of Columbia University (in *U. S. Bureau of Education; Circular of Education*, 1900, No. 3, pp. 194-198).

An extensive list of publications and articles by and about the university from its founding to 1890. It is a pity that the list should be ten years behind the date of the printing of the monograph; it should have been revised and brought down to the present.

CORNELL UNIVERSITY

Bibliography of Cornell University (in *U. S. Bureau of Education; Circular of Information*, 1900, No. 3, pp. 421-425).

Seventy-two titles classified under the heads public acts and documents relating to the university; Histories of the school; Lives of the founder; Publications of the university, alumni, and undergraduates.

There are many helpful notes and the list seems to have been made about 1890 and imperfectly revised in 1895.

DOMESTIC ECONOMY

Bibliography of German Books Concerning Instruction in Domestic Economy to Girls (in *U. S. Bureau of Education; Report of the Commissioner*, 1898-9, Vol. I, 187-189).

Seventy-seven titles treating of the place, value, and content of the subject in the curriculum, with list of the reports of some German cooking and housekeeping schools.

EDUCATION

The Church and Popular Education. By H. B. ADAMS. 84 pp., O. Baltimore, 1900. (*Johns Hopkins University Studies*, XVIII, 393-436.)

Section 5, pp. 474-476, gives a selected list of titles, with brief comments, of literature relating to the institutional church and the proper function of the church in education.

Outline Studies in the History of Education. By A. S. OLIN. 120 pp., O. Lawrence, Kan., 1900.

This little book prints outline syllabi of fifty-two lectures forming the course on history of education offered by the author at Kansas University. Reading references covering each lecture are found in parallel columns, giving accurate citation by chapter and inclusive pages. A list, 106 titles, of works cited in the references, fills pages 110-120. Full title and imprint data are given, but no notes.

Only titles of works in English are given.

The omission of a number of books, as important and available as Mullinger, *Schools of Charles the Great*; Bowen, *Froebel*; Keatinge, *Comenius' Great Didactic*; and Woodward, *Vittorino da Feltre*, will impair the worth of the book in many hands, although ample marginal space is left for additional references.

Bibliography of Education for 1900. By J. I. WYER and I. E. LORD (in *Educational Review*, April 1901, Vol. XXI, 382-421).

This is the second number of what is now an annual feature of the *Educational Review*. The scope and distinctive features of the work are clearly stated in an introductory paragraph and were set forth in the notice of the initial number in the *SCHOOL REVIEW* for October 1900.

The number of titles listed in 1900, 481, against 618 in 1899, indicates a more rigid selection by the compilers, whose purpose it is to include *only* what is distinctly worth while.

The typographical setting is much more pleasing than in the first number, and the notes are better and more numerous. The arrangement, which groups all material on each subject, providing in addition a full author index, should make this list useful to all readers, writers, and workers along educational lines.

FRENCH LANGUAGE

Books of Reference for Students and Teachers of French. By E. G. W. BRAUNHOLTZ. 80 pp., O. London, 1901.

A very useful little volume containing a quite surprising amount of information on topics directly pertaining and remotely related to the subject, ranging from general bibliographies of French literature to books on French folk-lore, art, etc.

The book will be of most use in colleges and universities, as few high schools would use or afford to buy such a collection. More thorough data, showing publisher, price, and date of books should have been given, as well as more critical and descriptive comment. *The Nation* for May 2, 1901, on p. 359, notes some important omissions from the lists.

GEOGRAPHY

The Teaching of Geography in Switzerland and North Italy. By J. B. REYNOLDS. 112 pp., D. London, 1899.

A report presented to the University of Wales by its Gilchrist traveling student. The bibliography appended gives about fifty selected titles, many of them not found in Dr. Mill's "Hints on the Choice of Geographical Books." The list is classified under the heads: "General Works on Method in Geography;" "Swiss Works on Method in Geography;" "Geography in Swiss Universities;" "Excursions;" "Map-making and Apparatus."

ITALY—EDUCATION

Recent Italian Educational Literature. By A. F. CHAMBERLAIN (in *Educational Review*, Oct. 1900, Vol. XX, 278-288).

Summarizes addresses by the Italian minister of public instruction, giving his views of the status and future of elementary and higher education in Italy, and by Dr. Ferrari, of the University of Padua, on political education. A number of books and articles are digested which list and describe the chief Italian schools for feeble-minded and defective children, and the work which they are doing. An interesting paper on "Illiteracy" is described at some length, and the article closes with a notice of the work of Professors Benzoni and Melzi in child-study.

KENTUCKY—EDUCATION

History of Higher Education in Kentucky. By A. F. LEWIS. 350 pp., O. Washington, 1899 (*U. S. Bureau of Education; Circular of Information*, 1899, No. 3).

Lists of references are distributed through the monograph in footnotes and at the end of each article. Many of the items are too vaguely and informally cited to serve as more than hints, but the sum total is a very considerable bibliography.

KINDERGARTEN

Concerning a few Books on Child-Training. By EMILIE POULSSON (in her *Love and Law in Child-Training*. Springfield, 1899. Pp. 221-235).

Describes a dozen or two of the best books for kindergartners with especial reference to those which will be of value in interesting parents in the kindergarten. A list from so authoritative a source can be taken without reserve.

LIBRARIES

Select Bibliography of Libraries and Popular Education. By F. W. ASHLEY (in *Adams, H. B., Public Libraries and Popular Education*. Albany, 1900. Pp. 239-264. University of New York *Home Educational Bulletin* No. 31).

A selected list of titles, with helpful notes, designed to aid the general reader in the study of library extension in the United States. The point of view is the educational aspect only, of the work of American libraries. The list is divided by subjects following the chapters in the accompanying monograph.

MANUAL TRAINING

Bibliography of German Books on Manual Training for Boys (in *U. S. Bureau of Education; Report of the Commissioner*, 1898-9, Vol. I, 185-187).

General discussion, eleven titles; historical development and present status of manual training, eight titles; its place and value in the curriculum, twenty-two titles; its relations to sociology and hygiene, five titles. Author, title, place, date and price are given, with no comments whatever.

Bibliography of Manual Training (in *University of State of New York, High School Department, Bulletin No 9*. Pp. 230-284. Albany, 1900).

Appendix I is a good bibliography covering manual training and home science, first separately and then in combination.

RUTGERS COLLEGE

A Bibliography of Rutgers College. By G. A. OSBORN. 12 pp. O. New Brunswick, N. J., 1901.

A classed list divided according to the kind of publications, ranging from the college charters and laws to the publications of college societies. Entries are chronological under each section.

SCHOOLROOM DECORATION

Schoolroom Decoration, Bibliography (in *University of State of New York, Home Education Department, Bulletin 32*, pp. 423-425. Albany, 1900.)

Eighty-nine titles, bearing not only on the use of art in decorating the schoolroom, but on its formal study in the schools. While many titles have been omitted equally or more important than those given the list should be helpful to those studying the subject. Items are chiefly periodical references, and there are no notes.

TEXT-BOOKS

Confederate Text-Books (1861-1865): A Preliminary Bibliography. By STEPHEN B. WEEKS (in *U. S. Bureau of Education; Report of the Commissioner*, 1898-9, Vol. I, 1139-1155).

A list of all text-books published in the seceded states during the war years. Titles are classified under kind of book as Primer, Grammar, etc., and under each of these divisions the arrangement is

chronological. Full title-page and collation are given with extensive notes of any points of interest.

UNIVERSITY OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK

The University of the State of New York (in *U. S. Bureau of Education; Circular of Information*, 1900, No. 3, pp. 111-112).

Nineteen titles of sources used in writing the preceding monograph. The list is incomplete, recording nothing since 1890 and making no attempt to list publications by the university.

WOMEN'S CLUBS

Reference List on Woman's Clubs. By C. H. HASTINGS (in *Chautauquan*, April 1900, Vol. XXXI, 14-15.)

Thirty-nine carefully chosen, annotated titles, largely periodical literature. Twelve groups of topic subdivisions form a rough subject index.

J. I. WYER

THE UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA

EDITORIAL NOTES

GEORGE HERBERT LOCKE

IN the search for the best method of combining the work of the school with that of the work shop so that each will supplement the other, the Baldwin Locomotive Works of Philadelphia has adopted a very interesting and suggestive plan. With the aim of turning out a class of technically skilful mechanics and mechanical engineers the company has set up what looks like an intelligent apprenticeship system, duly safeguarded on the educational side, and which offers to boys and young men a chance to supplement their school training with two, three, or four years' experience in the locomotive works. The first class of boys admitted to the privileges of this training is composed of graduates of our grammar grades who enter for a four years' course. They receive wages from the day of entrance on the scale of 5, 7, 9, and 11 cents an hour, and at the end of their period of service are granted a bonus of \$125. Night school is provided at which attendance is compulsory three evenings a week; the course of study comprises geometry, algebra, drawing, and perspective that the boys may become thoroughly familiar with the technical language used throughout the shops. The work is varied as much as possible so that each lad may be initiated into all the details and mysteries of the craft. There is a true educational significance in that an opportunity is given to each boy to understand the general scope of the works and also to ascertain the division or special branch in which his particular talents will fit him to succeed. The second class is composed of graduates of our high schools, for whom also instruction in technical subjects is provided in the night school. These serve three years at 7, 9, and 11 cents an hour, and receive a bonus at graduation of \$100. They learn a trade just as do the boys of the first class. In the third class are the graduates of technical schools and colleges; their term of service is two years, not as apprentices but as employees, at 13 and 16 cents an hour. This is not a mere theoretical plan, but in harmony with the management of a business concern which employs over nine thousand men; it is thoroughly organized and in excellent working order. The results will be eagerly looked for by persons interested in educational, scientific, and economic progress, and these thousand students constitute what ought to be known as the College of the Baldwin Locomotive Works. This is one of the most interesting educational experiments of the age, and its philosophy is in perfect accord with that of the proprietor of the famous Armstrong works of England, to which reference was made in this journal about a year ago.

MR. GREENWOOD, Superintendent of Schools in Kansas City, read a very interesting paper at the recent meeting of the National Educational Association on "High School Statistical Information," in which he urged the necessity of adopting some sort of uniform method of tabulation in connection with our high schools in various parts of the country. He found that it was very difficult to obtain any accurate information because of the diversity in methods, but he submitted some figures on the cost of maintaining pupils in various high schools which, if not exactly accurate, are certainly very suggestive. The following are his figures in regard to these schools:

COST OF MAINTAINING PUPILS IN HIGH SCHOOLS

I have been only moderately successful in securing data on this subject. Many reports are strangely mute on this topic. With a thoughtful person one of the first questions is what it will cost, and I believe that this is a pertinent inquiry in regard to all school questions. To put it another way, how far can a community afford to tax itself constantly in order to support and maintain an adequate system of public schools. The following will throw some light on the subject in the cities mentioned:

Boston.—Net cost of educating 5766 resident pupils in the Boston normal, Latin, and high schools, \$507,377.81. Average cost of each resident pupil, \$87.99.

Columbus.—High-school enrollment, 2053; cost per pupil per annum on total enrollment, \$40.41; cost on average daily attendance, per pupil, \$49.10.

Cleveland.—Cost \$32.80 based on high-school enrollment and \$39.84 based on average daily attendance.

Cambridge, Mass.—Total enrollment—Latin, 472; English high, 572; manual training, 212. Average daily attendance—Latin, 385; English high, 491; manual training, 183. Cost per pupil on total enrollment—Latin, \$52.45; English high, \$50.89; manual training high, \$101.32.

Chicago.—Total enrollment, 10,241; cost per pupil on total enrollment, \$51.50 total cost on average daily attendance, \$58.62.

Denver.—Total enrollment—high school, 827; manual training, 381. Total cost per pupil on enrollment high school, \$47.17; manual training, \$79.74; total cost on average daily attendance per pupil—high school, \$58.48; manual training, \$96.76.

Detroit.—Total enrollment, 2716; total cost on enrollment, \$45.32; total cost on average daily attendance, \$51.12.

Indianapolis.—Total enrollment, 2058; cost on total enrollment, \$27.45; total cost on average daily attendance, \$38.20.

Louisville, Ky.—Total enrollment, boys' high, 378; manual training, 244; girls' high, 751; colored high, 295. Total cost on enrollment, boys' high, \$60.92; manual training, \$108.84; girls' high, \$42.16; colored high, \$31.87. Total cost on average daily attendance, boys' high, \$69.14; manual training, \$130.12; girls high, \$49.27; colored high, \$40.

Milwaukee.—Total enrollment, 1810; cost per pupil on enrollment, \$43; cost on average daily attendance, \$53.91.

New York.—Total enrollment, 1461; cost on enrollment, \$58.55; on average daily attendance, \$77.61.

New Bedford, Mass.—Total enrollment, 524; total cost on enrollment per pupil, \$49.22; cost on average daily attendance per pupil, \$76.44.

New Orleans.—Total enrollment, 944; total cost per pupil on enrollment, \$40.04; total cost on average daily attendance, \$50.73.

Omaha, Neb.—Total enrollment, 1518; cost per pupil on enrollment, \$36.89; cost on average daily attendance, \$46.98.

Providence, R. I.—Total enrollment, 1857; total cost on enrollment, 70.14; cost per pupil on average attendance, \$86.39.

Rochester, N. Y.—Total enrollment, 1019; total cost on enrollment per pupil, \$41.21; total cost on average daily attendance, \$44.92.

St. Louis, Mo.—Total enrollment—white, 1993; colored, 250; cost on enrollment—white, \$52.42; colored, \$52.54; total cost on average daily attendance—white, \$62.28; colored, \$71.01.

San Francisco.—Total enrollment, 1655; cost per pupil on enrollment, \$89.35; cost on average daily attendance, \$97.

St. Paul, Minn.—Total enrollment, 1741; total cost per pupil on enrollment, \$35.36; cost per pupil on average daily attendance, \$42.23.

Springfield, Mass.—Total enrollment, 657; cost on enrollment is not given; total cost on average daily attendance, \$65.70.

Toledo, O.—Total enrollment, 1261; total cost per pupil on enrollment, \$30.98; total cost on average daily attendance, \$34.42.

Kansas City (1899 and 1900).—Total enrollment, 3464; cost per pupil on enrollment, \$39.06; total cost on average daily attendance, \$49.81; cost per pupil in the Central high school on enrollment, \$34.22; cost on average daily attendance, \$41.70; cost per pupil in manual training on enrollment, \$45.11; cost on average daily attendance, \$58.46.

Some recommendations were made in regard to the necessity of a proper investigation, and it is hoped that the National Council will issue a definite report upon this subject.

ONE of the most interesting characters whom one meets in the work of education is the person who knows "all about the history of education." He has read *Quick* or *Compayré*, or sometimes both, and is looking for something which he can't understand. The historical side of education is classed by him with history in general which he dismisses as easy because he can understand it. He is looking for something difficult of comprehension in which if he takes a course he may feel that he is learned and can express ideas in language that can be barely understood by the persons whom he addresses. Such a man on account of his ignorance of history is all the time making discoveries, finding out things that the Greeks knew well and that Plato and Aristotle described at length. He has no perspective, he is all atmosphere, and is a hindrance to educational progress, besides being a bore to the ordinary, progressive individual. It is this lack of perspective that makes so many men narrow and uninteresting and justifies the assertion made by an eastern professor that as teachers our great lack is of knowledge. The lack of good literature upon educational subjects has been offered as an excuse, and there

is something to be said in its support for there has been a lamentable dearth of authoritative literature written in an interesting style. Much of our knowledge of what other nations were doing in the cause of education was gained from educational tourists, who, in true Cook's tour fashion *did* certain educational centers abroad and gave us in book form their impressions. They saw the system and the schools from the outside; they knew little or nothing of the spirit of the education and wrote as glibly and as dogmatically of schools seen in vacation as of those in regular session. These impressions were given us as facts and are as true as those of the ordinary tourist who makes an ocean to ocean trip of our own country, and in book form tells who we are and what we do.

But these days are rapidly passing away, and instead of primers and compilations we are being treated to books by men who know, men who are on the inside of affairs, who are in sympathy with the spirit of the movement and can speak with authority. Such a work is the sixth volume of the *Special Reports on Educational Subjects* issued by the Board of Education of England, in which is fully discussed the place of the preparatory school for boys in secondary education in England. It is one of the most exhaustive and withal interesting treatments of an educational subject that has yet appeared, and reflects great credit upon its editor, Mr. M. E. Sadler, whose task of synthesizing the work of some forty sub-editors has been most successful. The aim of the volume is to furnish a description of the educational service rendered by the preparatory schools to the nation, and to explain the conditions under which the work is carried on. To this end specialists in the various departments of this division of education were asked to prepare lucid and adequate papers and the result is very gratifying. Every paper is interesting and valuable. The subjects treated are: the history of the movement, the numbers and general organization; the masters; the equipment; the time-table of work; the curriculum; the place of the school in secondary education; entrance scholarships at public schools and their influence on preparatory schools; the examinations; the teaching of Latin and Greek, of the mother-tongue, of history, of geography, of modern languages, of mathematics, of natural science, of drawing, of art, of manual training, of music, of singing, and of gardening; health and physical training; games; employment of leisure hours; libraries; a day in a boy's life at school; school management; economics; preparation for the preparatory school; preparatory boys' schools under lady principals; the preparatory department at public schools; relations between public and preparatory schools; the preparatory-school product, from the point of view of four public-school masters; the home training of children; the possibility of co-education in English preparatory schools; appendices, etc. Such is the scope of this book as evidenced by the titles of its chapters.

It may be well to explain to our readers that the preparatory school in England does not correspond in function to what is known as a preparatory

school in this country. We understand by that term a school which prepares a boy to enter college, whereas in England it prepares a boy to enter the great public schools, which correspond in function to our preparatory schools in being the means by which college is entered. When a boy is nine and a half or ten years of age he is sent away from home to a preparatory boarding school, usually in the country. Here he spends three or four years before he goes to the public school chosen for him by his parents, or where he may have been elected to an entrance scholarship. During this time it is perhaps to be expected that he will not gain a very great deal of actual knowledge, for, as one of the essayists says:

It matters after all comparatively little how much actual knowledge a boy has stored up by the time he is thirteen or fourteen, provided that he is physically well developed, well disciplined in character, and sensible in his judgment, and that he has been trained to observe accurately, to express himself clearly, to work steadily, to be plucky, self-effacing, and generous, and to tell the truth.

He then enters the public school, from which he matriculates into the university at about the same age as an American youth, viz., eighteen and a half. Secondary education in England extends, therefore, over nine years of a boy's life, the preparatory school corresponding to the earlier years of the German gymnasium. If one wishes to compare the secondary education afforded by a gymnasium with that of an English secondary school he must include in the program of such a school as Eton, that of a typical preparatory school, or strike off from the gymnasium the work of at least the three lowest classes. This is of course only a rough method of comparison, for it must always be remembered that in the schools of England there are no limitations on the freedom of the head-master or the governing body of an individual school, as is the case in Germany. England, therefore, in secondary education is the best of countries for educational experiment. A difference on the side of the boys may be interesting. The German secondary schoolboy works in one school through the whole period of his secondary education. The English boy, who goes first to a preparatory school and then to a public school, changes his surroundings, intimacies, teachers, way of life and (often) place of residence at the age of thirteen and a half or fourteen, this great educational change coinciding (often most beneficially) with the physical one. The relation between boy and master shows another difference. The German secondary schoolmaster tends to become professorial in his interests and way of life, learned in his subject, and extraordinarily skilful in giving instruction in it. The English secondary schoolmaster, teaching in a school of the corresponding grade, is much more the personal friend of his pupils, much more in sympathy with their out-of-school interests, and, however keen a teacher, almost necessarily much less of a specialist in it, because of the other claims on his energies, thought, and time. Such are some of Mr. Sadler's conclusions. The last difference is easier to understand when one remembers that English schools are boarding schools. Some interesting comparisons may be

made by examining the weekly courses of study of two years in an English preparatory school (the first and the last) with those of corresponding years in a Prussian gymnasium, a Baden gymnasium, and the reform schule of Frankfort. The table appended has been adapted from Mr. Sadler's article.

Weekly course of study for boys aged from about 10 to 11 and also from 12 to 13 (the latter being enclosed in brackets):

SUBJECT.	English Preparatory School.	Prussian Gymnasium.	Baden Gymnasium.	Reform Schule, Frankfort.
Religious knowledge.....	2 [1 $\frac{3}{4}$]	3 [2]	2 [2]	3 [2]
Mother tongue (including writing and composition)	5 [3 $\frac{3}{4}$]	6 [3]	5 [2]	7 [4]
Latin	6 [11]	8 [7]	9 [8]	0 [0]
Greek	0 [5]	0 [0]	0 [0]	0 [0]
French	2 [3]	0 [4]	0 [4]	6 [6]
History and Geography...	4 [2]	2 [4]	2 [4]	2 [5]
Mathematics	4 [6]	4 [4]	4 [3]	5 [5]
Nature Study	0 [0]	2 [2]	2 [2]	2 [2]
Drawing	1 [1]	0 [2]	2 [2]	0 [2]
Total "Hours"	24 [30 $\frac{1}{2}$]	25 [28]	26 [27]	25 [26]

There are some three hundred or more of these schools in England, and from those who replied to the circular of the Board of Education, it seems that the head-masters are almost without exception Oxford or Cambridge men, and that about 89 per cent. of the masters are graduates. The figures show also a very liberal proportion of teachers to pupils, there being an average of 8.22 boys per teacher, taking into account resident teachers only.

Some of the most interesting comments are contained in the papers by the public-school masters who receive the preparatory school product, and are, therefore, competent to speak of the result of this training. Mr. Lyttleton says that the greatest defect in the ordinary public-school boy's mind is that he detests the effort of thought which belongs to the surmounting of a difficulty. Sooner than think consecutively or patiently elaborate and thoroughly subdue a difficult sentence, or a mathematical problem, nearly all boys of all ages of boyhood will go through hours of barren, soulless drudgery so long as they can convince themselves that they are covering the ground somehow and doing something praiseworthy. The author goes on to point out how that the Englishman succeeds in many parts of the globe by showing intelligence and zeal, but little method, while the boys in school-work show method and zeal, but little intelligence. It seems that at thirteen years of age a boy is willing to listen to any extent, to write to any amount, and to read anything set him for reproduction, and so his efforts have thus far been mainly mechanical. If,

then, the rational faculties are so much in abeyance that a premature appeal to them may be mischievous or useless, we shall have to consider this in making up our courses of study. Mr. Lyttleton's article is exceedingly thoughtful and suggestive. There are very many other comments which might be reproduced with profit, but in the limits of this article it is impossible. A quotation from Mr. A. C. Benson's paper may fittingly close this running sketch of a great book. Speaking of the preparatory school system, he says:

The qualities employed are sense, vigilance, consideration, care, and sympathy. The results are humanity, health, moral and physical happiness, and industry.

BOOK REVIEWS

How to Teach Reading and Composition. By J. J. BURNS, M.A., Ph.D.
American Book Company.

THE purpose of *How to Teach Reading and Composition* is to "help the teacher prepare for the daily work of the schoolroom." In the first chapter the author criticises the results obtained in reading and writing below the high school. He recommends as means to better results "a higher estimation of the prime importance of these arts," better economy of time," "more thorough preparation on the part of teachers," and "smaller classes." By criticism and comparison the child should be taught to appreciate an author's style, to get the elements of rhetoric from concrete study. The study of rhythm and memorizing selections in poetry and prose also receive attention. An excellent list of poems to be memorized is suggested for the several grades.

Part two is devoted to selections for study and writing. These consist of poems and prose extracts, and have been well chosen. At the end of each selection are explanatory notes or questions.

Although there is nothing novel in the book, it abounds in wholesome criticism and helpful suggestions. A full index adds much to its value.

B. F. ARMITAGE

Reading: A Manual for Teachers. By MARY E. LAING. D. C. Heath & Co., 1901.

THIS book is a valuable addition to this department of pedagogy. It is much more than a manual in the ordinary sense of that word. It marks a radical departure in the discussion of reading. Instead of presenting mere devices and methods as short cuts to a mastery of the subject, the author attacks the fundamental problems involved in teaching reading, discusses them in the light of modern psychology and pedagogy, and works out at least a rational solution.

The author makes a clear discrimination between reading and learning to recognize and pronounce words. The latter, however necessary as a preliminary to reading, is not reading. Reading is defined as a process of thinking, "recalling and relating concepts under the functioning of written words." This has its bearing upon the attitude of teacher and pupil towards even the first lesson. This should have an interesting content and the child should have clear and vivid imagery with which to interpret it.

The difficulty of mastering language forms is recognized, for the child has no direct interest in mastering them. His interest centers in the content, and it is this interest in the thought that is to give the motive for overcoming this difficulty. Attention is secured only through the child's interest, and this comes from presenting appropriate material. The degree of attention focused upon the reading determines the strength of the association. This connection between an idea and the written word is to be fixed, not by repetition, but by "repetition stimulated by interest."

In the judgment of the author it is an evil for the child to regard reading as drudgery. His work is not to be made so easy as not to call forth his best efforts, for

children delight in overcoming difficulties when they get something that they want in return; this compensation for their efforts is thought which has a value for them, which meets their present needs.

This is not a book for the teacher who is looking for cut and dried plans and methods; but the teacher who desires a deeper insight into the problem of teaching reading, that she may work out her own methods in accordance with fundamental principles, will find it full of stimulating thoughts.

An appendix of nearly sixty pages gives representative material for reading in the different grades. At the end of each chapter is a valuable summary of principles. An index would have made the book more usable.

B. F. ARMITAGE

Rome: Its Rise and Fall. A Text-Book for High Schools and Colleges. By PHILIP VAN NESS MYERS, L.H.D. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1900. Pp. xii + 554.

It is too late in the day to call attention to the appearance of this volume. Already, doubtless, it is in use in many schools. The popularity of the historical text-books previously put forth by the author commends it in advance. And, indeed, it possesses all the qualities which have characterized the long series of Mr. Myers' works—some qualities which are admirable and others not altogether above criticism. It is copiously illustrated. It has nearly a score of maps and plans, and half as many tables and summaries. The table of contents, with its four main divisions, shows that the author has a notion of the grouping of the events into larger wholes. He does not dribble his material through an interminable series of chapters, monotonously similar in length and significance, as do Shuckburgh, and How and Leigh, and even Botsford, in his otherwise excellent history. His selection of material and style of presentation reveal the practiced hands of a master in the production of schoolbooks which have the excellent recommendation that they interest pupils.

But what avail all these excellencies if the author has no first-hand knowledge of his subject, and shows that he is unfamiliar with recent investigation? The preface of Mr. Myers' book gives us a little uneasiness when we read how he is indebted as well to Leighton as to Mommsen. An examination of the text increases this feeling. The treatment in general is altogether superficial and traditional. At critical points the grasp of problems is feeble. In narrative and expository details there is much exasperating inaccuracy. The general inferences and conclusions are usually wrong. This is especially striking in his chapters on the empire. The author's idea about the work of Augustus is that by him "the monarchy abolished five hundred years before this had been restored." He exploits the old notion that emperors like Tiberius and Domitian were little more than abandoned wretches. Of the former he says, "his name lives in history as the synonym of cruelty, tyranny, and scandalous debauchery." It is unfortunate that the author does not add to his undeniable and praiseworthy ability in getting up interesting schoolbooks an adequate scholarship. In the present instance, he might easily have secured this result by associating with himself a specialist in the field of Roman history. From such a combination we might have obtained the ideal text-book. The present work is very far from it.

G. S. GOODSPEED

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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